

**ADMINISTRATIVE PLANS FOR PROVIDING
FOR THE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES
IN THE CHILD**

HERBERT L. BISSETT

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ADMINISTRATIVE PLANS FOR PROVIDING
FOR THE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES
IN THE CHILD

HERBERT L. BISSETT

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Master of
Arts in Florida Southern College, Lakeland,
Florida

Professor Zack W. Springer, Adviser

1949

THE HISTORY OF THE
REIGN OF
HENRY THE SEVENTH

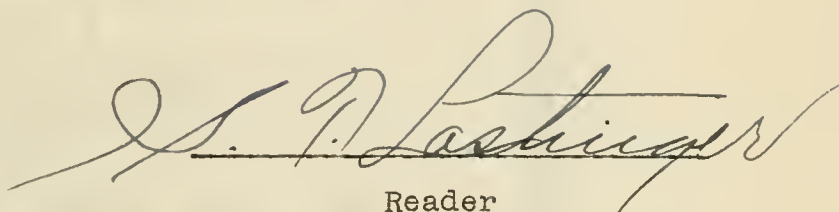
BY
JAMES HALLAM

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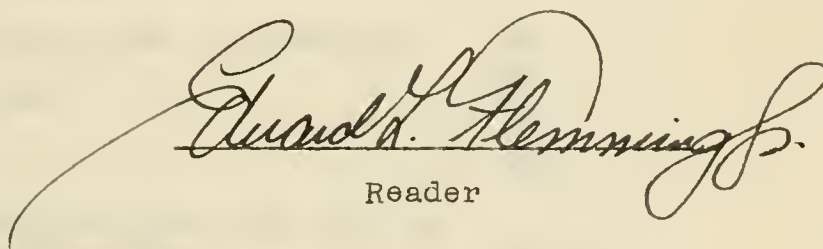
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A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "J. P. Lashinger", written over a horizontal line.

Reader

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "Edward H. Hemmings", written over a horizontal line.

Reader

Date submitted to the Chairman
of the Graduate Committee



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CHAPTER I

THE EXTENT TO WHICH WE FIND INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The variability among children in physical growth and physiological maturation, in mental and social development, and in progress toward emotional maturity is arresting. The use of standardized tests has done a great deal to make educators aware of individual differences in every area of behavior. No two babies are identical at birth. They vary in size and shape, in physiological characteristics, in their potentialities for physical and mental growth, and in temperament. Individuality manifests itself during the first few weeks of life, and as they increase in age these differences persist. We should have a "picture" of each person if his individuality is to be properly recognized and educated.

The following is a clipping from the Tampa Tribune:

PSYCHOLOGIST SAYS BABIES DON'T ENTER WORLD ALL ALIKE

Do babies enter this world pretty much alike and then develop solely in accordance with their environment?

A biochemist told an international gathering of psychologists today that such is not the case.

And efforts of a mother or teacher to develop an unusual child into a normal child, he added, can cause havoc in his emotional development.

The statement was made by Roger J. Williams, director of the Biochemical Institute at the University of Texas and discoverer of pantothenic acid, one of the B vitamins.

In a paper prepared for the Mooseheart symposium on feelings and emotions, he maintained the infant inherits not only microscopic details of his anatomy, but also his potentialities for mental and emotional development.

THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

The history of the United States is a story of a people who have grown from a small colony of English settlers to a great nation of free men and women. It is a story of the struggles and triumphs of a people who have fought for the principles of liberty and justice for all. The history of the United States is a story of the growth of a nation from a small colony of English settlers to a great nation of free men and women. It is a story of the struggles and triumphs of a people who have fought for the principles of liberty and justice for all.

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"Although early childhood environmental experiences are important," he said, "the makeup of the individual infant at birth . . . is of tremendous import in connection with his later emotional development."

He said it is "not so commonly appreciated" that inheritance determines the size, shape, and cellular composition of thyroids, adrenal glands, pituitaries and sex glands--glands that influence behavior.

Comparing inheritance factors in human beings and animals, he said:

"It is well known among those who make a business of training dogs that even though they may be from so-called purebred stock, each individual dog has his own inherent peculiarities and a form of discipline which will work for one dog will ruin another." He added:

"This idea, based on objective experimental testing will, I'm sure, meet resistance in some quarters."

"Such an objector is willing to admit, I presume, that he has inherited human intelligence from his human ancestors--he was not born with the intellectual potentialities of a goat or a pig--but the idea of his inheriting a particular, complicated pattern of potentialities from his forebearers throws a monkey wrench into fondly cherished modes of thought."¹

Physical Differences

Upon entering a classroom, the most obvious differences among individuals are physical. In any room there will be differences in age and sex, genetically at the beginning of their existence. Thus a group of 2276 boys, 15 years of age were found to vary in height from 4 feet, 8 inches to 6 feet, 2 inches; and in weight from 80 pounds to 161 pounds.² Within any group there are a few very tall children, a few very short, a larger number of taller and shorter than average, while the largest number are about average in height. One ten year old child may be twice as heavy as another.

1. Tampa Morning Tribune, November 1, 1949.

2. Lewis M. Terman, The Measurement of Intelligence, pp. 51-64.

At a given age, the strongest boy may be as much as three times as strong as the weakest.

About two-thirds of all school children have some more or less serious physical defects which may handicap the individual. These defects include those in vision; those in hearing, imperfections in speech including stammering, stuttering, and malformation of speech organs; defects in bones or muscles; glandular deficiencies which may be benefited by endocrine treatment; epileptic and convulsive disorders; weakened hearts; and malnutrition.

The balance of rest and activity differ with children. Some require more physical rest, while others need more mental or emotional rest and greater physical activity. The amount of sleep needed varies. Different children react in different ways to fatigue, depending upon which system of the body becomes tired more easily.

Differences in motor ability are noticeable all through childhood, but in adolescence they are more outstanding than before because children of that age are interested in athletics.

It is obvious that children do not grow alike. A tall slender child does not gain weight at the same rate, nor does he weigh as much for his height as a short, stocky child. As children grow, their relative position as tall, medium, or short, when compared to average tends to remain fairly constant. Early and late maturing children have different patterns of growth. Some children are split

growers, others are harmonious growers. Each child has his own peculiar pattern of growth.

There are differences between boys and girls. Boys exceed girls in rate of growth except during the period of 12 to 15 years.

Girls on the average are more mature physiologically than boys of the same age.

Mental Differences

All people do not possess the same intellectual capacity. Results from intelligence tests have found intellectual ability to be distributed among individuals in the same general way as any other variable trait, such as height and weight.

The intelligence of a child can be determined by comparing his behavior in certain situations with the behavior of other children in that same situation. When a six year old child shows behavior like that shown by most seven year olds, he is said to have a mental age of seven years. The intelligence quotient is the ratio between the child's mental and chronological ages.

One of the most significant outcomes of the testing movement is the objective proof that children differ from each other in almost every intellectual trait. The total range of I. Q. thus far determined varies from 15 to 195; 66% fall in group 85 to 115. This is average. About 15% are above average with I. Q. of 115 to 130, and another 15% are "dull" or below average with I. Q. of 70 to 85. About

3% are "brilliant" and 3% "deficient."³ The differences in intelligence form an unbroken line from the lowest to the highest and each level shades almost imperceptibly into the next.

Tests show that some pupils can do almost twice as well as others of the same age in the same subject. An individual's abilities are shown by the extent to which he can deal effectively with situations and problems of his daily life. A brilliant child is usually superior in all respects to those of less ability. He can see relationships, generalize, and reach logical conclusions.

Children with inferior mental capacity may be grouped into four divisions:

1. Idiots, whose adult mental age is about two years. They never go to school.

2. Imbeciles, with mental age of from three to seven years. They usually complete the first two grades of school.

3. Morons, with mental age of from eight to eleven. They sometimes complete elementary school.

4. Dull children with I. Q. of 70 to 85. They learn slowly and have great difficulty with abstractions.⁴

Except for those with very low I. Q., children of all mental abilities are found in the school room. In a room

3. Terman, op. cit., pp. 66-70.

4. See The Stanford Revision and Extension of the Binet-Simon Scale for Measuring Intelligence, Warwick and York, 1916.

On the following day, the following is
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the I. Q. range is usually from 70 to 140. Normal intellectual growth is at a rate directly proportional to their initial capacity. The dull and bright thus become more and more unlike as they grow older. Studies of oral and written composition reveal tremendous differences in levels of development at every chronological age and every academic grade. It is not uncommon to find in a grade a range of as much as six years of development.

One reading test administered in any typical fifth grade class reveals a wide range of ability.⁵ Some children will be at practically the zero level of reading ability; others will be found at each level up to the adult proficiency. One pupil may be able in ten seconds to read a passage which would require another child two minutes. He would therefore be able to complete an assignment in a much shorter time.

Children vary widely upon entering the first grade in their readiness to read. Interest in reading materials at all levels are conspicuous for variety, changing clearly from one level to another and varying with sex, mental ability, and background of experience.

Differences in Special Abilities

In addition to variability in general, capacity to learn, certain children show decided differences in specific capacities for learning along definite lines. One child

5. Sidney L. and Luella C. Pressey, Methods of Handling Test Scores. New York: World Book Company, 1926, p. 11.

has mechanical ability, another shows musical talent, a third has artistic gifts. Other children show limited capacity or even complete lack of ability along these special lines. The level of effective intelligence in nearly every person may be raised through education.

Social and Emotional Differences

Two persons of much the same mental caliber may find expression of their abilities in various ways. The teacher is still less aware of social and emotional than of intellectual differences. He seldom realizes the different emotional attitudes which children in a single classroom take toward him. One child will regard him as a parent substitute; another will transfer to the teacher his general hostility toward authority; while another will look upon the teacher as a superior person to be revered.

Some children are naturally "in-going," thoughtful, imaginative, or day-dreamy; others are naturally "outgoing," aggressive, or easily stimulated by outside influences. Some children are dependent upon adults while others take every opportunity to do things for themselves. One child placed in school and faced with problems of reading and number work seizes this as an opportunity to exercise his capacity and win status; another will not give up the world of physical play and finds the intellectual world colorless.

Children differ in the way they express their emotions. Expressions of sympathy differ widely and individuals may

vary greatly in their susceptibility to anger and jealousy. In a study of fears among children, Holmes found that no one stimulus produces fear in all children. Temptations differ for individual children in the same situation.⁶

People differ a great deal in their ability to find substitute means of satisfaction, and to withstand the pressure of frustration. Some individuals are able to turn a drive into another channel of expression more easily than others.

There is an observable evolution in the types of responses. Since an individual goes through such a series of development, it is possible to measure the level he has reached and determine the "emotional age."

Five substitute mechanisms to which people sometimes resort in order to avoid emotional situations are:

1. Compensation
2. Projection
3. Sour grapes
4. Daydreaming
5. Rationalization

The following are some abnormal types of behavior sometimes found among children, but more often in adolescence:

1. Neurasthenia (withdrawal type)
2. Hysteria
3. Fanaticism
4. Feeling of inferiority

6. Jersild and Holmes, "An Experimental Study of the Fears of Young Children," (Part III), Children Fears.

5. Phobias

6. Moodiness

Those who have studied delinquents regard them as emotionally unstable individuals. Individual differences in social habits acquired before the age of six are great. Some children will play alone most of the time, while others are usually found in groups. They differ in their choice of play material also. Some approach strangers with greatest friendliness and others refuse to speak even in response to the most cordial greeting.

Hanfmann in a study found at least five different individual patterns of behavior used in attaining a position of leadership with a companion. Her classification of these were:

1. The isolationist
2. The objective leader
3. The social leader
4. The gangster leader
5. The destructive leader⁷

Home sets the atmosphere for whildren's moral and ethical standards, physical well-being, esthetic appreciations, and the philosophy of life in general. In any classroom the children may come from all types of homes: from the highest to the lowest, economically, socially, or emotionally speaking. The position of families in the community and the position of the children within a family differ.

7. Hanfmann, "Social Structure of a Group of Kindergarten Children," pp. 407-410.

At no time do children attain a uniform level of maturity in all phases of their development. For example, one boy ready to enter college intellectually may still be a little boy physically or socially.

In a literal sense every one is exceptional. Each child grows in his own unique way. Some children are tall and some are short, some slender and some stocky. Some are physically strong; others are weak. Some are intellectually keen, while others are dull. There are the energetic and the phlegmatic; the agile and the awkward; the ingoing and the outgoing in personality. Because individuals do not fall readily into one type or another each having his own characteristics, the importance of the individual not an alleged type is to be emphasized.

CHAPTER II

CAUSES OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

That the individual differs in mental ability as well as in physique and traits of personality has been known for centuries. But it is only within recent years that the causes, extent, and educational significances of variations in individuals have been studied.

The innumerable ways in which people differ from one another may be attributed to one or both of two causes. The differences among persons are due to varying combinations of heredity and environment. Let us consider the causes of individual differences from four main points:

1. Social development
2. Personality development
3. Physical growth
4. Mental ability

Heredity

Scientists believe that patterns of behavior can be inherited. In the study of human beings, scientists believe that there may be laws of inheritance which apply to human behavior just as there are laws of inheritance that apply to structure. Physical characteristics such as color of eyes, hair, height, and appearance may be inherited. Basic abilities, such as intelligence, speed of reaction, and motor skills may be inherited. It has been proven that

children from intelligent parents inherit higher I. Q.'s than children from the lower group.

Binet, Terman, and Merrill have given several tests to large groups of people and found that children from cultured groups and higher economic status inherit their mental ability from their parents. Children of unskilled workers have the lowest I. Q. A child of professional parents is exposed to more advantages than a child from the home of an unskilled worker. From indisputable proof, various physical characteristics and the capacity for various abilities are inherited according to the degree of blood relationship.¹

Physical Growth

Perhaps the most confusing and most neglected fact in education is growth. Development in intellect, personality, and character can be understood only in relation to physical growth. In a child's world, physical size and prowess play a large part. The growth which a child has achieved determines in a large degree the group of children with whom he will associate, and his own position and prestige in that group. Some children mature earlier than others, causing a difference in their associations because of different interests. For example, the bright boy who seemed to be so much larger than his classmates was pushed ahead in school until he was with others against whom he was so helpless in play

1. Lewis M. Terman and Maud A. Merrill, Measuring Intelligence. A Guide to Administration of the New Revised Stanford-Binet Tests of Intelligence. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1937. Pp. xii / 461.

that he became a recluse; the exceedingly tall boy withdrew completely from games with his classmates because he could not compete on a level with them; the stupid sixth-grade bully tyrannized others because he had been held back in the grades among boys too small to fight back successfully; and the girl who was small for her age became the pampered pet of both the teacher and other girls in her class.

Another cause of differences in physical growth is speed and accuracy of movement. Closely related to rate and speed of movement is that of skill.

A number of homes fail to give their children well-balanced meals. A child that is undernourished is susceptible to disease. Illness affects emotional tone, nervous energy, and temperament. Illness or defects limit the opportunity for normal development and social experiences.

The Physically Defective

A crippled or sick child may have a special position in the consideration of the adults in his family, which may lead to habits of dependency and hence limit his opportunity for developing self-confidence. A physically handicapped child in school may be favored, criticized, or petted. These children, prevented by their bodies from satisfying childish urges to activity and social participation, must find satisfaction elsewhere. They may resort to playing up their defects for sympathy and attention from adults. They may use the defects as excuses for not accomplishing as much as they could. The general characteristics of the defective child are:

1. They are undersized for their age, are often sickly, and are susceptible to infections.

2. They are likely to be teased by other children and are apt to play with children younger than themselves.

Under physical defects we might list a few that would upset a child if not corrected:

1. Visual defects
2. Auditory defects
3. Speech defects
4. Diseased teeth and tonsils
5. Glandular conditions

Parent-Child Relationship

So far as resulting child behavior is concerned, undesirable parental attitudes may be the cause. Examples are as follows:

1. Rejection of the child, such as parents seeing only the shortcomings of the child; nagging, severe punishment; parents deserting the child and sometimes putting it in an institution to avoid trouble.

2. Dominant behavior on the part of the parents, such as demanding complete obedience; never giving the child a chance to follow his own interests or activities; super-imposed ideals forced upon him; being over-anxious about trifles and not allowing the child to play with others.

3. Submissive behavior on the part of parents, such as: a parent cannot refuse requests of the child;

parent gives in to the child; parent neglects the child physically as well as mentally.

4. Over-acceptance of the child, such as excessive contact of mother with the child. The mother may solve the child's problems for him, may defend him from individuals outside the home, and prolong infantile care.

5. Friction between parents certainly may affect a child's social growth, as may projection of parental ambitions upon the offspring.

Home

One of the most important factors in the development of personality is the home. The relationship between child and parents may cause warped personalities. A child may become irritable and aggressive at school because of a brutal father at home. Also, the spoiled child who is given his way in everything he does or want is selfish and has poor social adjustments.

Some children are over-protected by the parents. Such parents watch the play of their children to protect them from other children. They rush to attend every physical and emotional need, to keep them from this activity and that situation, because they think that the exertion is too severe, or because they dislike the attitudes and interests of the group. Over-protected children do not become independent or self-reliant.

Some parents have "favorites," which causes trouble between sisters and brothers. Some children develop a feeling

that they are a little better than anyone else because of a special talent, or because they are beautiful or very brilliant.

Environmental Background

The key, for understanding the most difficult problem the teacher has, is in the pupil's social development or the home environment. Children of slums, poor neighborhoods, or tenant sections lack money, many physical comforts of life, and have poor sanitary conditions. In the poorer homes there are usually a large number of children in each family. They may be undernourished, dull looking, and uninterested children.

Our schools have failed to provide any outlet for the underprivileged child's mechanical skills and interests. He is an unhappy person who sees little or no future for himself along conventional lines.

A test was tried on foster children to determine the influence of environment. All investigators grant that a favorable home environment will influence the children so that their general abilities and I. Q.'s will be higher than those reared in unfavorable home environment. Adopted children tend to reflect the quality of the home in which they live. If brothers and sisters are reared apart in different environments, they will be less alike.

Then we have the broken home, which causes a well adjusted boy to become an introvert, isolated and unhappy; the "old fashioned home," in which children's ideas and

interests are suppressed, from which bitterness and misunderstanding are sure to result; the immoral home; the home that is antagonistic to the school; the home that takes in boarders; the home in which both parents work, with no one to care for the children; and the home that lacks discipline. All of the above factors cause social maladjustments. Some other factors that affect social development are: the birth order of the children, the social position of the family, the unity of the home, and the family interests.

Social Development

The new-born child enters an environment in which he is to become social, even though at birth he is neither a sociable nor an unsociable being. His individual development is limited in terms of his own biological inheritance and his social development is likewise conditioned by the same factors. The foremost influences exerted by early family life relate to their effect upon the fundamental needs of the child. These include:

1. The need for physical satisfactions necessary to the well-being of the body.

2. The need for psychological security or a feeling of personal worth.

3. The need for social competence or facility in winning acceptance from associates.

In addition, there is also the need for a sense of freedom to play and pursue purposeful tasks. Thus the child's

ultimate social adjustments depend upon the extent to which he respects the rights, feelings, and property of those with whom he associates.

Social Growth

A significant phase of social development pertains to members of both sexes learning to adjust to each other. During adolescence the boys and girls seek each other and enjoy being in mixed groups. A lack of opportunity to be with others will cause a child to be different socially. Being able to mix and get along with one's fellow man is a desirable social accomplishment.

The extent to which a person makes and keeps friends indicates his ability to get along. This ability reflects a person's social intelligence. The socially successful get along with other people. Failure to deal effectively with people is a symptom of poor emotional control. Such persons antagonize others in many ways by being intolerant, neglectful, unkind, and by behaving in ways that offend associates. For example, a person with an inferiority complex will have difficulty in getting along with people. He is apt to be sensitive and show fits of temper. His expressions of compensation or behavior are likely to be offensive to others.

Shyness is a reflection of various feelings and emotionalized attitudes which makes social adjustment difficult.

Children of poor economic status are often influenced to be recessive.

Economic Factors

When we realize that half of our population comes from families whose incomes range is slightly over \$100 per month, we can appreciate how acute this problem of economic security is. Children without the ordinary necessities of life are likely to try to secure such necessities by any means, such as stealing. The lack of good food and clothing resulting from the father being out of work produces loss of morals and emotional discord in the personalities of the children within the home. Studies of individual cases reveal that it is not the broken home, or the poverty, or the lack of recreational facilities which is responsible for maladjustments, but rather the way in which the individual reacts intellectually and emotionally to these and other factors of his environment which influences him toward or away from problem behavior. Fillmore has shown² that parental attitudes toward the child and the parent's own adjustments are more closely related to the child's adjustment than is the quality of the physical environment. Physical characteristics and deformities influence personality. The unusually pretty child is much more likely to attract attention than the average child, while the homely girl has to make compensations in order to become socially efficient.

2. Eva A. Fillmore, Studies in Child Welfare, Volume XI, Number 4. Iowa City: Iowa University, 1936, pp. 9-58.

The Attitude of Teachers toward Pupils

Punishment is based on native feeling of fear. Fear is a strong motive and may be used by a teacher to make pupils "mind." Sometimes a teacher thinks that she is adjudged a good teacher by having good discipline in her classroom. But this gain in keeping discipline is more than offset by the harm done in destroying initiative which might lead to the development of an inferiority complex. Any punishment which causes a child to feel that he has lost caste; that he no longer "belongs;" or that he is different and unacceptable to the group, has a bad effect on his morale and personality.

A teacher should maintain a calm, friendly attitude of open-mindedness and a desire to understand. She should not let her own emotions become so involved in her relations with her pupils that she acts to satisfy her own feelings rather than their needs. She should respect her pupils and not make remarks about them. A pupil's inattention, stubbornness, rudeness, or idleness may arouse irritation and aggressive responses on the part of the teacher, but the cause should be sought.

Mental Development

It is generally agreed that people differ greatly in what is called common sense. Intelligence is composed of a number of factors, each unfolding in its own time and way, thereby producing a somewhat harmonious general development.

School Experiences

Foster children adjust themselves and progress better

than average in school. Heredity fixes each person's limits, but environment is important in determining how nearly he will reach it. Some pupils have more capacity for learning than others. Some spend more time and energy at it. Training sometimes increases rather than decreases the extent of difference, because of methods used and the failure to understand the needs and interests of the child.

Community Experiences

Communities that are not progressive and do not provide out-of-school interests to help individuals develop socially have failed in their greatest work. They should instigate recreational programs, such as Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., 4-H Clubs, motion pictures, musical programs, operas, and social gatherings.

CHAPTER III

WAYS OF FINDING INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Observation

The teacher should strive to have the wisdom of Solomon, the patience of Job, and the understanding love of the Creator, Himself. Every good teacher does, to some degree at least, possess these cardinal qualities. No teacher can stand before her class any length of time without seeing many differences, because no two persons are alike. This individuality, though it is the spice of life, is a challenge to democratic schools and a real problem to the conscientious teacher.

Physical differences are perhaps most noticeable. The most conspicuous and extreme cases will naturally be detected first. The overgrown, the under-age sized, the crippled, the extremely nervous child, and the major delinquent problems are only a few. Mild handicaps are much more common in public schools than is often realized, and may be overlooked for a while or neglected entirely. Health clinics when available are a great help in finding minor physical defects, and this professional service should be sought.

Emotional difficulties are too often neglected by the busy teacher. Peculiar conduct is a symptom of some hidden problem and should be attended with patience and understanding. Delinquency must be dealt with.

A school may neglect a dull child or a bright one, but a delinquent person is in such conflict with society that something has to be done. Such cases are self-evident.

Personal Interview

The personal interview, when conducted tactfully, will often reveal personality traits overlooked while seeing the child only in a group. Gain the child's confidence by showing a genuine interest in his hobbies and special interests. Encourage the child to talk about himself. Information, first-handed and used wisely, is often valuable in bringing about a desirable personal attitude toward school life.

Testing Programs

Testing, though far from being a perfect measuring stick, is the best device we have for judging mental, social, and subject matter achievement. Testing results will show a wide range of individual differences, and when tempered with good judgment is most valuable for better understanding and directing a child's school life. Robinson says, "Every child should learn to make a living as well as to enjoy a living in functioning physically, socially, and spiritually in his most effective individual way."¹

Case Study

The "case study" is perhaps the best method for finding individual differences. The purpose of this intensive study

1. R. Robinson, "Leisure Time Activities of New York's Lower West Side," pp. 484-493.

is to see the individual as a whole in his own world. The circumstances in which he is living tells much about him, and all these conditions are formative in making him what he is.

CHAPTER IV

WAYS BY WHICH ATTEMPTS HAVE BEEN MADE TO MEET INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Some plan of individualization of instruction is necessary even in the best scheme of classification of pupils. In response to problems of individual differences, schools have made adjustments of various kinds.

Retardation

One of the earliest methods was to require the poor pupils to repeat a grade, thus keeping them behind others of their age until they were in grades with younger children of the same capacity to learn, and to accelerate bright children by giving double promotions, thus putting them considerably above those of their own age.

Flexible Promotions

Another device for providing for individual differences in the abilities of elementary school pupils, which has been used extensively, is that of flexible promotions. In this program comes half yearly and, sometimes, quarterly promotions. This gives the child a shorter period to work and apparently a better chance for promotion; or if he fails, the loss is not so great. The popularity of this program is decreasing.

Homogeneous Grouping

Historically, the next development was homogeneous grouping. The pupils are divided into five groups, such as brilliant, bright, average, dull, and defective. The children of the brilliant classes cover the conventional school curriculum much faster than do the other children. A few extra features are added for the class of bright pupils. The class of average pupils retain the same curriculum as before. The classes for the dull pupils are restricted to the essentials. The defective children are given a different kind of program entirely. They are given training with the intention of fitting them to the various vocations they might enter after leaving the school. There have been many variations of this plan.

Multiple Track Plan

One of the variations of homogeneous grouping is the multiple track plan. The pupils are classified into two or more groups. The brighter pupils take more than the regular quota of work in less time than the other group. The less bright group moves slowly. Bobbitt, in studying the effects of homogeneous grouping, found that it helped the dull pupils, had little effect upon the average, and hindered the brilliant ones. Other authorities contend that when these methods are adapted to the superior group, they will gain as much or more than the slow group. Still other opinions are that homogeneous grouping has values not easily measured in

the usual ways, such as improvement in attitudes, social adjustments, and interests of the pupils.²

Dalton Plan

The Dalton plan involves these concepts: first, freedom of movement; second, the interaction of group life; and third, the budgeting of time. Each room in the school is a laboratory. Students in all classes work simultaneously in all rooms according to their particular projects. Class schedules are abandoned and time is budgeted. Each pupil receives a job consisting of a set of guide sheets. The unit is for one day's work. This unit is planned by each pupil by referring to the bulletin board. During the first fifteen minutes, the pupils meet with the teacher to make plans for the day. The remainder of the morning is spent in various laboratories. The morning session closes with a conference with the teachers. The afternoon session is devoted to scheduled periods of art, music, physical education, and industrial arts.³

Winnetka Plan

Under the Winnetka plan all lectures and recitations are abandoned in favor of self instructional practice exercises and diagnostic tests. The course of study is divided into two parts. For one part, all of the knowledges and skills

2. Franklin Bobbitt, The Curriculum, pp. 40-45.

3. Helen Parkhurst, Education on the Dalton Plan, p. 29.

which everyone is expected to master, are divided into units. Each child must satisfactorily complete one phase of the work and pass a diagnostic test before he goes to another.

In the other part, the pupils work together in group projects. During this phase they learn social studies, arts, and hand skills. There are no failures. A child takes up where he left off when the school closed the spring before. The self-instruction practice exercises enable the pupils to attain a definite goal and the diagnostic tests determine whether the goal has been reached or not.⁴

Cleveland Plan

In Cleveland, Ohio, a plan has been devised whereby grade barriers have been disbanded and the child may progress at his own rate. Some progress faster than others.

Contract Plan

The contract idea has for its purpose the individualization of instruction. It has some features of the Dalton and the Winnetka plans. The assignments or contracts are for a month and the curriculum is divided into as many units as there are months of school. It includes self-instruction materials, diagnostic and mastery tests, called cumulative power tests. The individualization of instruction has been used and seems to move in the right direction toward individual differences.

4. Henry J. Otto, Elementary School Organization and Administration, p. 36.

Project Method

Under the project method there are four types of projects. They are as follows:

1. Producers' project
2. Consumers' project
3. Problem project
4. Drill project

The producers' project is to make, construct, or produce something, as a toy house or a poem. The consumers' project is to use something or to appreciate the product of others. The problem project is to solve a situation. It may be a simple problem like drawing a doll or describing how the Greeks lived. The aim of the drill project is to acquire some skills. It may involve recognizing the spelling of a word, or the finding of the derivation of the word, or the understanding of a statistical distribution.

Multiple Curricula

Many schools have attempted to provide for individual differences through multiple curricula programs. The school divides itself into these divisions: the commercial high, the technical high, and the classical high. Even within their specialized schools several different curricula are found. This allows the pupil to make adjustments for his needs, abilities, and interests. Here, pupil guidance is necessary. Where this guidance is provided, there is a combination of administrative provisions, curricular provisions, and methods.

It may, also, and sometimes does, comprise special materials and techniques.

Out-of-School Work

In schools providing out-of-school work, some of the pupils are allowed to carry more than the regular load, or to carry courses not regularly taught. One of the most common out-of-school projects is the agricultural training that is provided for by the Smith-Hughes Act. Other common projects are music, home economics, etc.

Special Classes

Some schools provide special classes. These are usually more for slower than for the faster pupils. Fast pupils carry more work. Vocational training is sometimes provided for the handicapped child.⁵

Supervised Study

Supervised study takes many forms, varying all the way from a study period with a teacher as monitor, to almost completely individualized supervision. Two causes have led to its wide use, namely: poor study habits and working conditions, and the need of the pupil for extra help from the teacher.

Ability Grouping

One method of providing for different abilities is to place the pupils in sections according to their ability.

5. Otto, op. cit., p. 154.

These pupils may take the same subject matter at different rates or study the same curriculum which is made to suit the needs of the group. Different instructions are used with the various groups. Individual instruction may be given in the fundamental subjects in which ability differences are most noticeable. Some of the devices for the slower pupil consist of handwork and other types of manual activity. Special methods are devised for superior pupils.

At high school and college levels, various courses of study and electives allow for individual differences. These differentiations are most efficient when both educational and vocational guidance are available to assist the student in selecting a field in which he can succeed. Ability grouping is a means for bringing about effective instruction for children of all levels of ability.⁶

Core Curriculum

The name "core" is used in one type of provision for individual differences because it deals with essential needs that are common to all. The pupils are divided into what are called "core sections." They are placed in high, medium, and slow learning groups of the core sections.

Each core is assigned to two teachers, an English and a Social Science teacher, both of whom work two years with the group. Usually the pupils spend one period a day with the

6. Otto, op. cit., p. 154.

English teacher and another period with the Social Science teacher. The teachers frequently are present during each other's class periods. A core teacher works with three or four sections.

The courses deal with four main areas, namely: effective communication both oral and written; the home, with emphasis on homemaking, budgeting, and understanding personal adjustments; the area of consumption of goods and services. Problems of consumer education propaganda, advertising, the hiring of help in the home, and other relevant problems must be understood. The area of consumption of goods and services covers the field of vocations.

The daily schedule includes two periods in core sections. All students treat any subject they undertake from the "must" viewpoint. A girl, studying dramatic art, would go into it from the angle of expression through art appreciation. She would take, as an elective, the area of the home. From the angle of consumptive goods and services she would attend concerts and visit museums and factories; and from the angle of production she would investigate vocational possibilities.

Activity Movement Plan

The activity movement plan permits more flexibility than any other plan discussed. It emphasizes interests and makes the central theme to be interests of the individual child. There are no formal exercises, no lecturing by the teacher, no regular textbook assignments, and no separation of subject

matter into units. Instead, there are a number of student projects or interests which are worked out by the pupils under the guidance of the teacher. Projects on such units as transportation, communication, farming, and others are worked out. Pupils engage in trips and research and expressional activities. Having interests aroused, the children form committees, go to the libraries and museums, and later report to their classmates. Modern activity schools are noisy, but the students are too busy to be mischievous. When one is naughty or sulky, he is sent to a mental hygienist who tries to find out what is wrong with him.

While there are many adjustments that can be made on a group basis, many adjustments must be made on an individual basis. No simple formula or device has been discovered that provides for automatic adjustment.⁷

7. L. C. Mossman, The Activity Concept, pp. xiv-xv.

CHAPTER V

PROVIDING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

One of the most important trends in education today is that of putting greater emphasis on needs of individual children. Children differ in their problems, abilities, and interests. Because of these differences, each child should receive the required personal attention. The student with a great capacity to learn quickly should receive different treatment from that of a student who does not have this capacity. The boy who enjoys working with his hands should be provided with an outlet in the school situation as well as the boy who enjoys reading. All students have a right to be stimulated to think and study with a view as to preparation for what they are going to do in later life. A competent teacher, proper environment, and a flexible curriculum should be provided.

The Teacher

The teacher should develop a personality which appeals to children, and through reading and study keep familiar with the thinking or professional people. The teacher's attitude toward others, his appearance, his taste in dress, his manner, and his speech are contagious. Pupils like teachers who are friendly and who treat them with consideration and respect. It is possible for a teacher to find something in every child to like, something to respect, and something worthy of genuine friendship. Teachers who are fault-finding and irritable

tend to have classes who bring discipline problems. Teachers must remember that all children are not endowed with the same abilities and these differences must be taken into consideration.

Schoolroom Environment

Attractiveness

The schoolroom should be as attractive, as likeable, and convenient as possible. Room committees may be appointed to keep the room and things about the room. Flowers, potted plants, and window boxes make a room homelike. The desks or chairs should be movable in order that they may be arranged to allow for the different activities. The furniture should be painted, clean, and attractively arranged. At least one appropriately framed picture is desirable. The bulletin board should exhibit interesting clippings, news, drawings, posters, booklets, and work done by the class. The library table, a work bench, nature exhibits, play corner, and painting easels should be strong in appeal. A place for everything is important and builds up habits of neatness and orderliness.

Physical Comfort

Seating

Seats should be carefully adjusted to the children. A child's posture may be ruined by a misfitted desk and chair. He should be able to put his feet firmly on the floor, with the desk in front of him at a comfortable height for work or writing.

Light

Children should not face the light. Seats may be arranged so that the light will fall from the back or over the left shoulder. Artificial lighting is being used to supply the proper number of foot-candles, but there is still doubt as to what kind of artificial light is best.

Heat and Ventilation

A thermometer, hanging low enough for a child to read it, adds to the interest of the students. Monitors may easily check the temperature to see that it is kept at seventy degrees Fahrenheit. Proper ventilation is important.

The Pupils

Physical Condition

Eyes

Any teacher can get some idea of serious eye difficulties. Eyes may be inflamed, the lids may be diseased, or the child may hold his book too close or too far away from his eyes to read. A Snellen Eye Chart can be purchased very cheaply. This chart will serve as one kind of check, but does not detect every defect. Often, through questioning, the teacher may discover eye trouble. This trouble should be promptly reported to the parents. If the parents are not financially able, the Lions' Club, or some other civic organization, will furnish the child with glasses.

Ears

Sometimes, children are branded as dull when later it is discovered that they were not hearing well. At the first

of the year, the hearing of all the children should be tested. Teachers should watch for signs of poor hearing. If the child persistently asks for statements to be repeated, or if he has a blank expression when spoken to, poor hearing may be suspected. An audio-meter which measures the degree of hearing may reveal a hearing condition which has been a distinct handicap to the successful educational life of the student.

Heart

Providing a special schedule for a cardiac case may mean much to a child. Special attention should be given to see that habits of work are not too strenuous.

Speech

Speech, in order to be a useful art, must help one to make the best use of his abilities; adjust and cooperate with others; earn a living; and help one to become a good citizen. Surveys show that as high as 25% of the child population is affected with speech handicaps. A child who has a speech defect, such as stuttering or stammering and lisping, is greatly handicapped and a chance for normal progress in school is greatly hindered. Stinchfield has reported that I. Q.'s in children with speech defects can sometimes be raised as much as ten points as a result of speech rehabilitation.¹ Therefore, in order for children

1. Sara M. Stinchfield, Children with Delayed or Defective Speech, p. 28.

to make use of their abilities, a speech improvement program is of great importance to a child's education, and should have a definite place in the school program.

Malnutrition

Malnutrition is prevalent in almost every school. A child who is undernourished tires easily and is listless and inactive. Malnutrition manifests itself through a pale, yellowish skin, dry hair, hungry-looking eyes, and thin chest. Medical examination in extreme cases is recommended. Proper balancing of meals and necessary food should be stressed in teaching. A midday lunch at school may be a life-saver for the undernourished child. A few minutes of rest after the midday meal is also essential. Here again, a child may be considered dull when he is actually underfed.

Social Conditions

Knowing the home environment of a child is important. Often nervousness, stuttering, timidity, and even aggressiveness can be traced to unsatisfactory conditions in the home. An understanding teacher will look for the reason for any unusual behavior. Emotional disturbances not only retard a child's social progress, but prevent his progressing in his work as he would do under normal conditions. The teacher will want to know the economic status of the home, the way the child is cared for, and any family discord. For some pupils, adjustments for social growth may be made by assigning activities that will correct the deficiencies in the home

training or in the social background; such as training in cleanliness, neatness, respect for others, and etiquette. Assignment to activities in the classroom, such as special duties or monitorial service, may help to develop social characteristics.

Mental Conditions

Tests should be given by a competent person at well-planned intervals throughout the school life of each child. These tests include: general intelligence tests; special achievement tests in subject areas such as reading; general achievement tests in all areas of school work; aptitude tests involving the discovery of special abilities; and inventories. Any one or all of these tests may become a part of the program of the school in order to do a thorough job in trying to help individuals adjust properly. Many children are required in school to attempt work that is beyond their mental ability. A teacher must realize that children vary in abilities, and that these differences must be cared for through grouping; class work graded in ability; and through activities in which everyone can participate. Child guidance clinics offer assistance to those who have serious personality difficulties and to those who are behavior problems.

CHAPTER VI

UNITS OF WORK

Preliminary Inventory of Interests and Resources

Any teacher will plan a better program of work with her children if she knows them well; and knows, also, the resources of interests, activities, and materials that are available in the environment. The outline which follows suggests important points for the teacher as preparation for building units of work.

1. The teacher can study the children's interests through these devices: drawing them into discussions; observing their activities in the classroom; observing their activities in the community; noting their choice of books and other available materials; noting their choices of work during unassigned periods; noting the things children make, draw, or paint; recognizing the contributions children bring from home; listening to their conversation and comments.

2. The teacher can study the characteristics of her group of children, their needs and abilities through these devices: observation of children as individuals and as a group; records and reports of the progress of these children; records of units carried in previous grades; study and diagnosis of skills; consideration of special aptitudes and abilities.

3. The teacher can study community activities and interests through these devices: articles and items in the

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local newspaper; incidental discussions with parents and other citizens; observation of local and community activities; participation in church and club groups.

4. The teacher herself can study community resources and opportunities for worthwhile first hand experiences for children such as building under construction; new enterprises being launched; industries, libraries, and museums that exist.

5. The teacher can study the community resources such as libraries, textbooks, source books, supplementary books, audio-visual aids, materials for construction, and materials for science.

Points to Consider in Planning and Carrying Out a Unit of Work

In planning and carrying out a unit of work one should consider the seven points that follow.

1. Survey the needs and interests which justify this unit and make it significant. Are there any general needs and problems of life which make this study important? Are there community needs which might be helped? Do these children have need for the study and are they interested in it?

2. List important objectives or goals which might be achieved through this particular study.

3. Make an overview of the subject matter which might enter into the study, the kinds of experiences which

would be good, and any ways in which different subjects could be drawn in or integrated with this unit.

4. List books and other materials for the children to use as well as some for teacher reference.

5. Plan possible ways of introducing the study and getting children interested in it.

6. Plan the working period, keeping in mind the fact that only part of the working plan can be arranged in advance because the children are to help plan it.

7. Plan the evaluation of the total unit of work. Final evaluation would be concerned with two main points of growth and changes that have taken place and individual strengths, weaknesses, and problems which need further attention.

Provisions for Retarded Children

Retarded children can participate in the activities of units of work in whatever grade they may be but they will read simpler books and can study and contribute ideas from pictures. They will enjoy the excursions and the construction work that is done. They can draw, paint, model in clay, and carry on other types of art expression if they are given help with ideas and factual material they need for their work. They will learn through visual aids, listening to reports, and through discussions with other children.

In providing the necessities of life, Ruth Strang says:

The mentally retarded children should be familiar with certain concrete facts, have sufficient reading ability to find their way around, form habits of cleanliness, be able to protect themselves and others from communicable diseases, choose the right kind and amount of food, perform other health habits satisfactorily, learn to use money wisely, engage in wholesome amusements, and acquire skill in sewing, wood working, and other kinds of useful work.¹

Continuity in the curriculum between the elementary and high school for those with limited intelligence should be provided. Their special interests and capacities should be studied and a program planned with them. This program might consist of shop work, gymnasium, one or two clubs, modified English and Civics courses, library reading adjusted to their abilities, and scheduled part time work outside of the school. A special teacher may be provided for the individual attention such children need at the same time allowing them to participate in as many of the general school activities as they can. There is a stimulus in group work, and opportunities for developing social values, attitudes, and habits that cannot be obtained in purely individual work.

The vocational school offers opportunities to learn a trade. A large number of opportunities are open to individuals on various levels of intelligence. Manual laborers, tradesmen, cobblers, cooks, tailors, painters, bricklayers, and truck drivers are successful in spite of low score on intelligence tests.

1. Ruth Strang, An Introduction to Child Study, pp. 405-421.

Provisions for Gifted Children

Gifted children who participate in a unit of work can do more reading and in more difficult books than the slower children. They can bring in more material and can make additional contributions to the work of the group through art, music, dancing, dramatics, science activities, photography, home economics, shop, and visual aids than can the other children. Gifted children should be encouraged to set goals and immediate objectives for themselves commensurate with their ability, and work toward them.

Units of work do not form the whole of the curriculum. Children read many books that do not fit the units. Some of the books are for information, some to open up new interests, and explore new fields, and some are just for enjoyment. Many of the most delightful stories and books do not fit into any unit but are valuable because children enjoy them. Some aspects of skill will need practice for mastery, and this practice frequently does not fit into the unit, though the motivation for the mastery can come from need for the skill in carrying on the activities of the unit.

Other Provisions

Reading

Special reading disabilities require specialized methods of teaching and reading clinics have been set up for this purpose. The use of the ophthalmograph and flashmeter are very helpful in the reading program. The classroom teacher may

divide the group according to ability and provide reading material suited to the need of the different groups. Some children require individual instruction.

Arithmetic

In arithmetic many simple problems involving one process should be given to the uncertain portion of the class so that their success may be assured and confidence built up. From easy work one may progress gradually to more difficult work. Easy workbooks may be provided for children who work slowly. Such pupils should be allowed to work at their own rate.

Audio-Visual Aids

The modern curriculum should make provision for vitalizing and reinforcing learning to enrich the educational process. Audio-visual aids help teachers present their material more vividly and help the student learn faster and more efficiently. Generally after attending visualized lectures, some children learn twenty-five per cent faster and retain class material thirty per cent longer. Travel movies increase learning in geography up to fifty per cent.

Physical Education

Improvement in motor control, skill, and poise is only one of the values of physical activity. Social, moral, and personal habits, such as: learning to play with others; to take turns; to play fair; to plan a piece of work; to face difficulties that arise; and to stick to a job until it is

finished, are the types of habits that are learned through play and constructive activities. The child's play is an experimental activity which contributes to his knowledge of the external world and which helps him to make the necessary adaptation.

The small group games and large group games provide many opportunities for experiences in living happily together. If adjustments are to be made to the health needs of individuals, a variety of physical education equipment is needed. Provisions for many sports and games must be made in order to meet different social situations and varying needs for exercise.

Leisure Time

The teacher has many opportunities to develop more worthy and constructive leisure interests among pupils while they are still in school. Many talents may be discovered and developed in the daily curricular and extra-curricular activities. Hobby exhibits serve both to reinforce, through group recognition and approval, the special interests of the boys and girls contributing to the exhibit and serve also to stimulate others in the attractive pursuits suggested by the display. Teachers must be aware of cultural and recreational opportunities in the community so that they may call them to the attention of boys and girls. Some of the leisure time agencies are clubs for youth, libraries, churches, music and art centers, department

of parks, radio, motion pictures, other commercial recreations, sightseeing opportunities, summer recreational opportunities, character building organizations, and parent associations.

Social Activities

Ruth Strang says:

If pupils are to acquire various social skills, the school plant must provide rooms for small and large social gatherings. The lunchroom should have several dining rooms of different sizes in which committees, clubs, and classes may have meals together. Soundproofing, arrangements of tables, and attractive decorations all are conducive to a civilized noon hour. There is probably no single school activity having more potential value for teaching the social amenities than the noon lunch hour. Small rooms for committee meetings, a room equipped with books, magazines and parlor games for the leisure activities of youngsters, and a well equipped, general social room for group meetings of various kinds are all essential for an effective social program.²

2. Ruth Strang, op. cit., pp. 335-338.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

We must realize that some provisions should be made for the individual differences found in the child. Children differ in many ways and each child should receive personal attention. We have discussed numerous ways that have been used in providing for differences found in children; this, by no means, is sufficient to care for all the differences that might be found. It is the duty of the teacher to study carefully the child and find the best suited method of correction.

Many factors enter into and influence the development and behavior of the individual. The home, the school, the physical condition of the child, the environmental conditions besides that of the home, the social conditions, are a few, not to mention many other factors that might influence the individual.

In the school we have devised a number of ways to provide for the differences found in the child, but often the causes of the differences are more important and must be corrected before the condition can be improved. It takes the cooperation of the school, the home, and sometimes others to do the best job.

As school people, it is our duty to help educate the parents and the community as well as the child. A good program in pre-school care of the child will help a great deal

in the success of future pupils. A program in community health will have its effects upon the school and its pupils. A program of community recreation, under proper supervision, will have a wholesome reaction in the school and community.

It has been said, "For each delinquent child there is also a delinquent parent." Or better still, "There are no delinquent children but many delinquent parents." Some one else has said "Show me a delinquent child and I will show you a child without one adult friend." If this be true, it behooves us as teachers to be true friends of the child. To be a true friend we must know the child. Knowing the child means studying his personality and the many factors that influence his behavior. This is where the ways of finding individual differences become important: first, by close observation we can learn much; next, by talking to the child and showing an interest in his problem we can better understand his behavior. Tests of all kinds are published that might be used to discover hidden facts.

After we find these differences either by observation or other methods, the next step is to provide for them. Some may be simple physical defects which can be corrected; others may be of a more serious nature. Whatever it may be, it is up to us as teachers to do all we can to assist in the correction. Many such differences can be provided for in the classroom, and should be as soon as detected. The bright, or extremely intelligent child, must be provided for just as wisely as the dull or slow learner.

So, in conclusion, let us say our job is to recognize the needs of the child and strive diligently to provide for these needs in accordance with individual variation.

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